APRIL 11, 1959

SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

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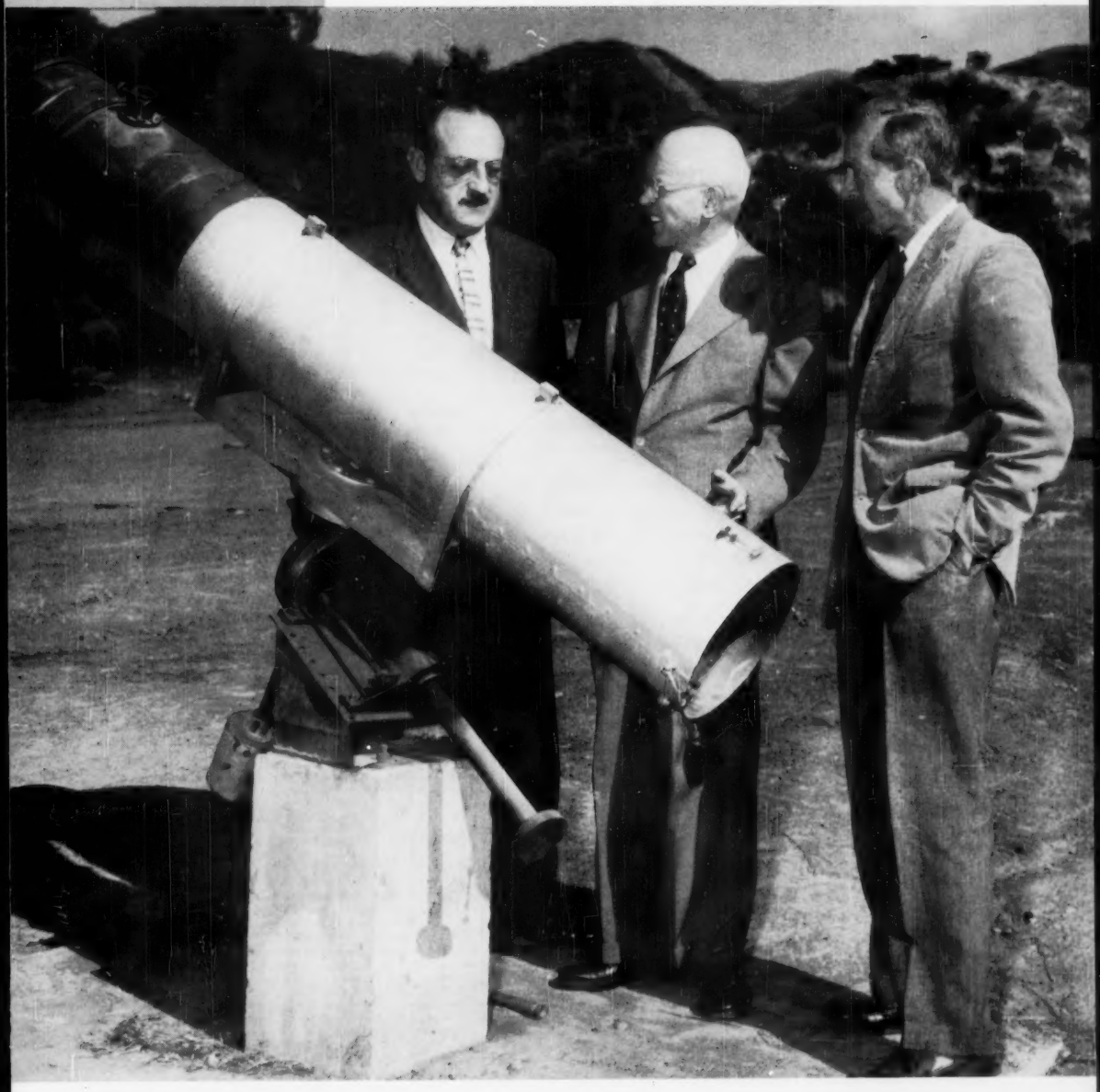
***SPECIAL ISSUE***

# The Academically Talented



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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

**APRIL 11, 1959**

**Volume 87** **Number 2151**


**COVER**

Dr. Lester C. Van Atta (left), Hughes Aircraft Co.; Dr. Richard Sutton, California Institute of Technology; and Newton K. Chase, headmaster, The Thatcher School, examine a large reflecting telescope at Thatcher, Ojai, Calif. (See page 177.)

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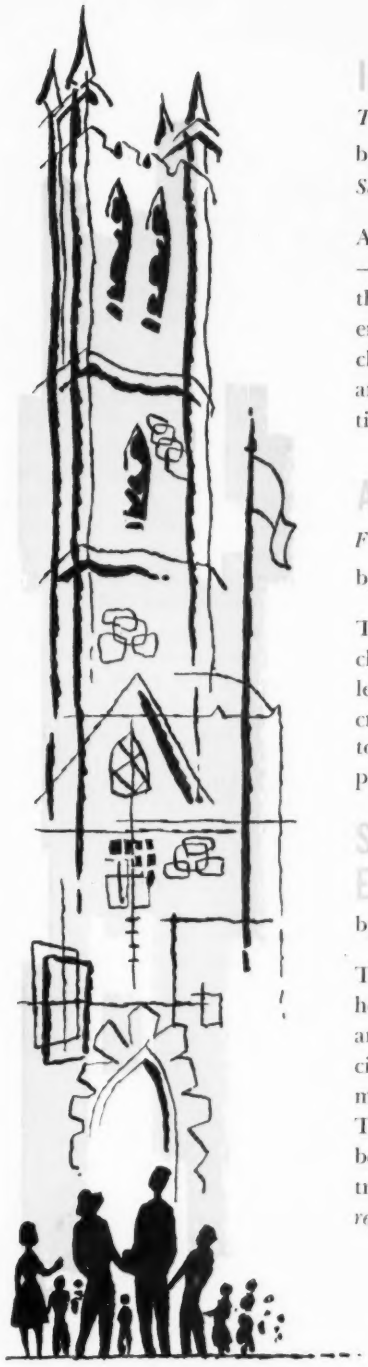

## INTRODUCTION TO EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

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All types of children are discussed in this introductory book—the mentally gifted, the slow-learner, the handicapped, and the problem child. Changes in this edition include: increased emphasis on the "team" approach in dealing with exceptional children; significant information on neurological disorders and allied conditions; and stress on understanding the "entire" child. *Published March 1959*

## AN INTRODUCTION TO CHILD STUDY

*Fourth Edition*

by RUTH STRANG, *Teachers College, Columbia University*

This edition features a new emphasis on the dynamics of children's behavior; an explanation of how and what children learn; suggestions for child study and guidance; and a description of home, school and community situations conducive to wholesome child development. Throughout the text, the potentialities of parents are stressed. *Published March 1959*

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# Ability Grouping, Segregation, and the Intellectual Elite

BY PAUL WOODRING
The Fund for the Advancement of Education

THE GENERAL FACTS about individual differences in learning capacity are well known. We disagree as to just how much of these differences result from inherited limitations and how much are the result of variations in early experiences and opportunities in and out of school; but no one seriously doubts that the differences do exist or that they must be faced by educators.

They can be faced in any one of six ways: separate schools for the gifted and other separate schools for the retarded; grade skipping for some and retardation for others; universal promotion, but with attempted individualization of instruction within the classroom; so called "homogeneous grouping" which actually is not homogeneous at all, but rather grouping by mental age or I.Q. within an age group; an ungraded system in which each child moves along at his own best pace without annual promotions; and grouping (within the comprehensive school) on the basis of demonstrated achievement and capacity in each separate subject, so that a child may be in a fast section in one subject, a slower group in another, and with other children of similar social maturity for recreational activities.

It is easy to find objections to any of these proposals; yet, we must choose, unless we can find something better. The ungraded system may be best in the lower grades. But at the secondary level, the last procedure listed seems most sensible, most consistent with the stubborn facts of individual differences, and least likely to do harm to any individual adolescent. It makes possible an easy and free association of all kinds of students during periods of social and recreational activity. It offers some difficult scheduling problems, but these are not insurmountable except in very small schools.

Ability grouping by separate subjects is now the practice in many schools, and the practice is growing. Something of the sort was suggested in the report of the NEA conference on the Academically Talented Pupil in High School. I have been one of the many who have urged its wider adoption.

Somewhat to my surprise, the counterattack has been heavy and, at times, abusive. A fighting rear guard of educators has chosen to obscure the real issues by hurling charges containing the emotionally toned words, "segregation" and "intellectual elite." The argument runs something like this: "Segregation is bad. Ability grouping is a form of segregation; *ergo*, segregation on the basis of ability, even for a few hours a day, is just as bad as segregation in Little Rock."

The fallacy lies in the major premise. The word, "segregation," has taken on a bad odor, but let us not forget its true meaning. Segregation, according to the dictionary, means merely separation or selection.. It becomes an evil only when the separation is of extended duration, leads to social distinctions, or handicaps an individual in his legitimate pursuit of his natural or constitutional rights.

The Supreme Court has ruled that segregation by race is such an evil. It does impose social barriers and handicaps individuals in their legitimate pursuit of rights guaranteed under the Constitution. Segregation by race within the public schools is neither morally sound nor educationally justified, because a white child, a Negro, and an oriental, if of roughly the same capacity for learning a subject, can effectively study side by side and can learn from each other.

But it does not at all follow that separation on an ability basis for periods of instruction will deprive anyone of his natural rights. Nor does it follow that a mathematical genius can learn effectively in a class of students who are backward or average in mathematical ability. He will be ready for calculus when others are still working on arithmetic, and the two can not be taught easily in the same classroom, by the same teacher, and at the same time.

All schools practice some sort of separation or selection. Harvard, by selecting its students rigorously, segregates them for a time from the boys not admitted; Princeton segregates by not admitting women. All elementary schools, except one-room country schools, separate children during periods of instruction. In most schools, the separation is on the basis of chronological age: six-year-olds do not study with 12-year-olds. In the high school, all athletic teams, debate teams, and bands separate students on the basis of ability. There are numerous logical and necessary bases for separation or selection, and

changing the word to segregation does not change the logic, even though it may inflame the emotions. We may legitimately disagree as to whether it is best to group children by chronological age, mental age, social maturity, or readiness for each separate subject, but nothing is gained by using emotionally toned words.

The notion that ability grouping in each separate subject will lead to the development of an "intellectual elite" is another logical fallacy that needs to be laid to rest. If there were any real danger of such a development in America, it would come far more from separate schools for the gifted, including colleges and private schools with high entrance standards, than from the kind of ability grouping within the comprehensive high school that Dr. Conant and I and many others have proposed.

An elite is a group of people who are given special recognition, special privileges, and special rewards. The purpose of ability grouping—and its probable result—is not to develop such a group, but rather to provide better learning situations for fast and slow learners alike.

The fear that ability grouping, or any other change in the schools, could lead to the development of an intellectual elite in America shows, at best, a limited understanding of our culture. We simply aren't that kind of a people. If we ever have an elite in the United States, it will not be an intellectual one. It is much more likely to be an elite of movie stars, rock-and-roll artists, and football players. In a very real sense, we already have such an elite, while the intellectuals go unheralded and unsung. It might not be a bad idea to try to bring the prestige, income, and recognition of some of our academically talented people—teachers, for example—up to at least that of salesmen and truck drivers. But the danger that intellectuals will ever become a true elite in our country is remote, indeed.

# Educational Programs for the Gifted[1]

By PAUL WITTY

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

OVER THREE DECADES AGO, Lewis M. Terman, Leta S. Hollingworth, and the present writer identified groups of gifted children and assembled data concerning their physical development, social status, and educational attainment. The results of these studies of children at or above I.Q. 130 agreed closely.[2]

Extreme rapidity in learning was found to characterize the gifted child. He usually completed his classwork in half the allotted time. When he was 10 years of age, he had typically acquired knowledges and skills of pupils in classes two or three grades above his own. Almost without exception, studies made during the period 1920-45 showed that the schools were making little special provision for such children.

The present resurgence of interest in the education of gifted children is traceable, in part, to the influence of three books about the gifted. Terman and Oden's "The Gifted Child Grows Up"[3] revealed the remarkable ability and attainment of the gifted throughout childhood and youth and as young adults; "Education of the Gifted" stressed the need for better educational opportunities;[4] and "The Gifted Child"[5] included a comprehensive treatment of the nature and needs of gifted children with recommendations for their education. The latter was distributed widely by the American Association for Gifted Children. Perhaps the most significant of the more recent volumes is the yearbook, "Education for the Gifted."[6]

In many elementary and secondary schools, efforts are now being made to develop more suitable curricula for the gifted student. Yet, these efforts are inadequate. In fact, many gifted pupils remain unidentified in our elementary schools, and in our high schools such students may "languish in idleness." Moreover, not more than 50% of the total number of gifted pupils

[1] Based on paper read to Division 15, American Psychological Association, Aug. 30, 1958.

[2] L. M. Terman and others, "Genetic Studies of Genius," Vols. I, II, III, IV (Stanford: Stanford University Press); L. S. Hollingworth, "Gifted Children: Their Nature and Nurture" (New York: Macmillan, 1926); P. Witty, National Society for the Study of Education, 39th Yearbook (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co, 1940), Part 2, pp. 401-409.

[3] L. M. Terman and M. Oden, "The Gifted Child Grows Up" (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1947).

[4] "Education of the Gifted" (Washington: Educational Policies Commission, 1950).

[5] P. Witty, editor, "The Gifted Child" (Boston: Heath, 1951).

[6] R. Havighurst, chairman, "Education for the Gifted," The 57th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958).

who graduate from high school in some states go on to college.

The current interest in superior students has included emphasis upon the neglect of the potentially gifted scientist. This neglect was stressed in a number of articles and books which appeared during the decade before Sputnik I arrived to focus our attention on this problem. In the early accounts, it was pointed out that the secondary school needed to extend and enrich its offering in science. It also was shown that relatively few capable boys and girls were choosing science as a vocational pursuit. Lack of motive and interest was considered an important reason for this condition.

Charles C. Cole presented questionnaire results for 32,750 high-school seniors. Analysis of the data for the pupils in the upper 30% on an aptitude test yielded some provocative results: 12% of the high-scoring group indicated that the most important reason for not planning to go to college was financial need; and many others stated that financial need was an important consideration. But the significance of "lack of college goal" also was stressed:

> . . . About 25 per cent of the high-scoring boys and 45 per cent of the girls cited the lack of a college goal as possibly an important reason for not continuing their education. This suggests that there is considerable validity in believing that, despite the importance of financial need, lack of motivation for college is a stronger deterrent to college-going among those of high ability who do not go to college. . . .[7]

As early as 1933, W. L. Wilkins and the writer summarized the experimental literature on acceleration and stated that moderate amounts of acceleration seemed justifiable for the gifted.[8] Later, S. L. Pressey examined some relationships of acceleration to success in college and concluded: "The evidence was practically unanimous that younger entrants were more likely to graduate, had the best academic records, won the most honors, and presented the lowest disciplinary difficulties."[9]

A summary of studies in this field recently has been prepared by Dean A. Worcester, who stresses the value of acceleration.[10] One value is the avoidance of duplication in courses. The School-College Plan (Ford Foundation), involving Andover, Exeter, Lawrenceville, and Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, was developed to avoid course duplication and repetition of instruction.[11] Another Ford-sponsored project, the Program for Early Admission to College, involved 420 young students admitted in Sept., 1951, to 12 colleges prior to their graduation from high school and 440 more admitted in Sept., 1952. Additional grants were made in 1953 and 1954. It appears that the adjustment of these students to the advanced work and to other requirements was satisfactory.

Still another plan encouraged by the Ford Foundation involves the provision of college-level work in high school. This experimental program—the Advanced Standing Program—is now sponsored by the College Entrance Examination Board, which provides high schools with descriptions of college courses in 12 fields and prepares examinations in them.[12]

Two well-known efforts to make special provision for the gifted are represented by Cleveland's Major Work Classes[13] and by New York City's Hunter College Elementary School.[14] In Indianapolis, too, children who have I.Q.'s of 130 or above are considered for special classes.[15] In these classes they have an opportunity to complete the work of the regular course of study and to participate also in an enriched curriculum. It is believed that "this program of enrichment has many advantages over the practice of acceleration or 'skipping' grades."[16]

Increased interest has been shown in providing more adequately for the gifted pupil in regular classes.[17] One writer stresses the work of consultants and committees, the role of creative pursuits, and ways of planning and evaluating endeavor at various levels.[18] Another desirable means of providing for the gifted within the regular class is through differentiated assignments. A valuable aid for the classroom teacher is the "Teacher's Guidance Handbook," which includes suggestions to aid in the identification

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[7] C. C. Cole, Jr., *Higher Education*, 12:35-8, Nov. 1955.

[8] P. Witty and W. L. Wilkins, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 19:321-346, May, 1933.

[9] S. L. Pressey, "Educational Acceleration: Appraisals and Basic Problems" Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, no. 31 (Columbus: Ohio State University, 1949).

[10] D. A. Worcester, "The Education of Children of Above-Average Mentality" (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955), p. 36.

[11] M. Meister, *Science Teacher*, 20: 107-110, April, 1953.

[12] W. O. Cornog, Bulletin of Information, pp. 1-17, Nov. 1952. *See also* Fund for the Advancement of Education, Research Division, "Bridging the Gap between School and College," Evaluation Report No. I (New York: The Fund, 1953).

[13] T. Hall, "Gifted Children: The Cleveland Story" (Cleveland: World Book Publishing Co, 1956).

[14] G. E. Hildreth and others, "Educating Gifted Children at Hunter College Elementary School" (New York: Harper, 1952).

[15] "The Gifted Child in the Indianapolis Schools." Brochure published by the Board of School Commissioners of the City of Indianapolis.

[16] H. O. Pregler, *National Elementary Principal*, 32: Sept. 1952.

[17] M. Scheifele, "Gifted Children in the Regular Classroom" (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953).

[18] B. R. Rex, Jr., *Exceptional Children*, 19: 117-120, Dec., 1952.

of the gifted student and contains suggestions about ways to offer desirable classroom experience.[19]

The prevailing interest in the gifted has brought increased attention to the curriculum of the secondary school. The writer, in collaboration with Samuel W. Bloom, has described some programs in science for the rapid-learning pupil.[20] Morris Meister stresses the fact that the Bronx High School of Science is a school for the superior student in which science is being used as one of the tools by which a liberal education may be acquired.[21] In his provocative book, Brandwein discusses the problem of meeting the needs of the potential scientist and sets forth a curriculum designed to meet these needs.[22] He stresses the significant role played by the teacher. The present writer, too, has directed attention again and again to the teacher as a crucial factor in the successful education of gifted children and youth.

One result of the renewed emphasis on the role of superiority is found in the attention now given the capable high-school student. At a conference in Washington, Feb., 1958, on this problem, James B. Conant, the chairman, stated:

> . . . Throughout the conference, we used the phrase, "academically talented" to refer to that 15 to 20 per cent of an age group who have the ability to study—effectively and rewardingly—advanced mathematics, foreign language, physics and chemistry. Obviously, the gifted would be included in this broader definition.[23]

It was recommended that high schools offer programs for "academically talented" students and include as requirements: four years of the study of English; four years of one modern language; one year of physical science and one year of a biological science; one year of American history, one year of history other than American, and one additional year of some other aspect of social science; and three years of mathematics.

Another result of the current interest in the gifted is the increased number of scholarships now available. An outstanding organization devoted to superior students is the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, which now awards hundreds of four-year college scholarships each year.[24]

Perhaps it is desirable to broaden our definition and to consider any child as potentially "gifted" whose performance in a valuable line of human activity is consistently or repeatedly remarkable. Several promising techniques have been developed to identify such children.[25] The writer has discussed some values in the use of films to promote creative expression, as well as to identify pupils having talent in writing.[26]

One project, recently undertaken by the Reed College faculty and the Portland school officials, includes not only

> the intellectually gifted and academically skillful but also those with high capacity in art, music, dramatics, dancing, creative writing, mechanical skill and comprehension and social leadership. . . . Students who rate high on these are identified as gifted, even though their scores on intelligence tests are ordinary. When identified and grouped by fields, these high school students are given seminars, many of them participated in by Reed instructors.[27]

Promising students in the area of social leadership may be recognized by their performance in social activities of various kinds. Promise also may be suggested by the results of sociometric measures, opinionnaires, and interest inventories. Student councils in the junior and senior high school not only offer an opportunity for enrichment of social experience, but they also may provide another source for the identification of pupils having gifts for social leadership.[28]

Each of the plans for the gifted reviewed here has unquestionable merit in particular situations. Moreover, one may recommend a more general use of acceleration in moderation accompanied by enrichment. Although there is at present a heartening interest in the education of academically gifted pupils, it is regrettable that so little has been done to meet the needs of potentially gifted pupils in various areas of creativity, as well as in social leadership. However, a beginning has been made and interest in this problem is growing.

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[19] J. Kough and R. DeHaan, "Teacher's Guidance Handbook," Parts I and II, Elementary Edition (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1956).

[20] P. Witty and S. W. Bloom, *Exceptional Children*, 20: 233-250, 262, March, 1954.

[21] R. Havighurst, E. Stivers, and R. DeHaan, "A Survey of Gifted Children," *op. cit.*, p. 74. *See also* account by M. Meister, in P. Witty, editor, "The Gifted Child," *op. cit.*

[22] P. F. Brandwein, "The Gifted Student as Future Scientist" (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1955).

[23] J. B. Conant, SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, 86: 225-227, May 10, 1958.

[24] J. L. Holland and R. C. Stalnaker, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 42: 9-21, March, 1958.

[25] C. W. Williams, in "A Survey of the Education of Gifted Children," by R. J. Havighurst and others, Supplementary Education Monographs, No. 83 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955, p. 88).

[26] P. Witty, *Elementary English*, 33: 340-344, Oct. 1956. *See also* D. Corgiot, *Action*, Metropolitan Detroit Bureau of Cooperative School Studies, 8: 4-5, May, 1955.

[27] M. S. MacLean and R. B. Carlson, The 57th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, *op. cit.*, Part II, pp. 316-346.

[28] E. M. McWilliams, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 40: 72-81, Sept., 1956.

# England's Special Schools for the Gifted[1]

By MAURICE J. TYERMAN[2]

SINCE THE COLD WAR, the American educational system has been under heavy criticism. Since Sputnik, the education of the gifted child has been a focus of that criticism. From some of the speeches made in the U.S., one would think that America was the only nation with any doubts about its schools; yet, the problem of how to give every child the best possible education worries every responsible community and government. In England there is considerable dissatisfaction with the secondary school provision and its emphasis on the grammar schools or special schools for gifted children.

The British system is based on different classes in different schools for children of differing abilities. In their third year at primary school, the brightest seven- and eight-year-olds tend to be in Class 2A, the next brightest in Class 2B, and so on. At the age of 11, when children are transferred to secondary schools, the most academic go to the grammar schools, a few others go to technical schools, and the remainder to secondary modern schools. A similar system seems to be found in most European countries, but in America it is more usual for all the senior children of an area to be educated in the same school.

Many Americans are now doubting the wisdom of their educational tradition and are advocating special schools for special categories of children. At the same time, many Englishmen are doubting the efficiency and fairness of the British system and are advocating comprehensive schools (or the same school for all) on the American plan. Indeed, the Labour Party[3] has announced that when it is returned to power, it will set up comprehensive high schools and abolish grammar schools. Perhaps we can learn from each other's experience.

Much of the objection to the grammar school is based on the examination which is taken in the primary school at 11. The results of this examination usually determine which type of secondary school the child will attend. Usually it consists of one or more intelligence tests, an arithmetic paper, an English test, and perhaps a composition. Teachers' opinions are also sought. Parents' wishes are considered but are often unfulfilled since about 80% of them want their children to go to a grammar school, whereas only about 20% are thought academic enough for these schools. The number of disappointed parents is, therefore, high.

In England before the war, a parent could pay for his child to go to a grammar school if he did not win a free place by competitive examination. The 1944 Education Act stopped this. If the Local Education Authority does not think a child suitable, then he cannot be admitted to a grammar school. Yet, to gain entry to the university or to the professions, it is necessary to have a General Certificate of Education. The grammar and the technical schools prepare their pupils for the examination for this certificate, but usually the secondary modern schools do not. Therefore, if a child at 11 fails to get into a grammar or technical school—and it is very difficult to get in after 11—certain occupations are virtually closed to him. A child can prepare for the Certificate by taking a correspondence course or by attending night school or a private school, but that is the hard way. Obviously, such a system must cause resentment.

When the results of the selection tests are announced, there are usually many parents who object to the decisions made. In at least one area, the psychologist is moved from his child guidance centre at one end of the city to the Town Hall at the other. There, for three or four days, surrounded by test results, school reports, and two harrassed receptionists—clerks, he tries to placate disappointed parents, all of them anxious and many of them irate. Such parents believe they are fighting for their children's future; and, indeed, they are. Many of them believe the selections to be inaccurate and unfair. There is much evidence to support them.

Research by impartial enquirers, particularly the National Foundation for Educational Research, indicates quite clearly that, in selecting children for the different forms of secondary school, about 10% are wrongly placed. Children's aptitudes and standards of work vary so greatly between 11 and 16 that, at present, it is impossible to make a forecast which is better than 90% accurate. At least 25% of children go-

[1] Based on a broadcast, Victoria, B.C., Canada, Aug. 10, 1958.

[2] Director, Grimsby Child Guidance Service, Lincolnshire, England. During 1957-8, visiting assistant professor of psychology, San Francisco State College.

[3] "Learning to Live" (London: British Labour Party, 1958).

ing to grammar schools do not deserve their places. Yet, if all who later will prove suitable for higher education are to be included, some must be admitted who will prove unsuitable. Certain areas send as many as 60% of their children to grammar school, whereas others admit only nine per cent. Thus, a child's educational future may depend more on where he lives than on his academic record.

A further argument against selection is that children become upset by the tests and the tension that surrounds the whole procedure. It is also said that children who are not selected for grammar school develop inferiority complexes. To people who work in schools, these objections do not carry much weight. Most children become accustomed to examinations, for they have them each year in the primary school. Probably there is no area in Britain where a child takes only one set of tests on one day, selection day, and never sees a test before or after that time. Also, children quickly learn how they stand in comparison with other children. Usually it is the parents who become emotionally disturbed and develop inferiority feelings.

Because of these arguments, especially the parental dissatisfaction, many people think that the only sensible thing to do is to abolish the test and send all the children to the same school —a comprehensive school which would offer a wide range of studies and include the courses now termed grammar, technical, and modern. In this comprehensive school, each child would do the type of work for which his teachers think him best fitted. If his interests and abilities changed, he would be moved into other classes and to other courses. Reports from the 50 or more comprehensive schools now in existence indicate that such a plan is very feasible and that many children are producing much better work than their performance at 11 would have indicated.

But against the comprehensive system is the undoubted fact that only a minority of children can cope with a grammar-school type of course. Being placed in an academic class does not necessarily make a child academic. And again, most English grammar schools attain extremely high academic standards. To deprive bright children of early recognition and early special opportunity would be unwise and unfair. "The grammar schools work! Leave them alone" is an opinion frequently heard.

But to many people, especially Socialists, the educational issues are relatively unimportant. Their objection to the grammar school is chiefly on social grounds, for they believe it to be the major cause of inequality in British society. To this the supporters of the grammar school reply that, far from perpetuating a society full of class distinction, the grammar schools are the main bridge between classes. They point out that these schools enable children from poor homes to obtain the type of education that will enable them to hold responsible positions in adult life. They argue that to destroy the grammar schools would be to destroy the bridge, not the class system.

On one point, however, nearly all British teachers seem to be in agreement—namely, that it is in a child's best interests for him to be taught with those children who most closely resemble him in age, ability, and aptitude. The belief widely held in America that dull children are stimulated by the bright without holding them back is rejected. Only the few Communists that remain want to abolish school streams and impose uniform curricula.

If the Labour Party wins the next general election, it is probable that the traditional English grammar school will disappear. But if the Conservatives are returned, this does not mean there will be no changes. There is so much opposition to selection at 11 that this system is unlikely to remain in its present form.

From these considerations it seems probable that in the U.S. any wide-scale provision of special high schools for the gifted is impracticable. In England such schools are resented. In America, where they are not traditional and where there is a strong feeling that the schools belong to the people, they could not be set up without arousing suspicion, jealousy, and hostility.

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**SUBSIDIZED PLURALISM**
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*24-PAGE SUPPLEMENT—MAY 23 ISSUE*
**SCHOOL AND SOCIETY**

# Enriching High-School Subjects for Intellectually Gifted Students[1]

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MOST WAYS of helping bright children get extra stimulation do not require expenditures far beyond those normally made by a first-class school system. "Enrichment" within classrooms is no exception; it calls for more finesse than finance.

The intellectually gifted student is *mentally* hungry. He needs a diet that will satisfy his cerebral cravings. Do we give a hungry man water and a thirsty one food? Of course not. But, for instance, we are sometimes prone to force upon a mathematically brilliant pupil experiences that, though worth while in general, do not meet his special needs.

I refer especially to the misuse, in the name of added enrichment, of such highly important activities as music, art, social studies, and training for classroom leadership, which, though desirable in themselves, are irrelevant to the special abilities and interests of many intellectually gifted children. Herein lies the danger in most *programs* of enrichment.

Even more obvious abuses of the term "enrichment" occur frequently. A student who completes class work quickly and accurately may merely be assigned more of the same type at the same level. No wonder he is not challenged by this "busy work"!

Also, there are many modern equivalents of the traditional eraser-dusting and message-carrying that result in physical rather than mental activity. Even letting the ablest pupil tutor the slowest one or insisting that a boy whose interest is primarily theoretical construct some object has obvious limitations when used as enrichment.

Intellectually gifted youth can function at higher levels of difficulty, abstractness, and complexity than their classmates. They can learn the fundamentals of a subject quickly and then apply this knowledge effectively for generalizing, problem-solving, comparing and contrasting, analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating, and appreciating.

Possibilities for "enriching" a given subject with respect to the intellectually gifted within regular classes are restricted only by the ingenuity, resourcefulness, and especially the energy of the teacher and his colleagues. Causing students to think rather than merely to memorize is the key concept. While departing from rote learning would enliven most classes, it is doubly important for the brightest pupils.

Comparing and contrasting several literary selections for mood, author's intent, and various literary devices, for example, are higher-level undertakings than merely learning the names of the characters in each selection or outlining the plots. Devising original experiments in chemistry requires more use of a pupil's mental equipment than does following the directions in a typical laboratory manual. Evaluating presidents of the United States in accordance with explicit external criteria calls into play far more judgment than just memorizing their names. Inferring the meaning of the term "Mardi Gras" demands, of course, greater mental acumen than simply learning that this event occurs annually in New Orleans.

Books and articles concerning gifted children say very little about how to "enrich" courses at the secondary level. Perhaps their authors hope —unduly optimistically, it would seem—that the intelligent high-school teacher who knows his field well will have sound ideas as soon as he realizes what types of added intellectual stimulation are needed.

A senior-high teacher can get considerable help from the book describing the Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board, which illustrates types of content and mental processes suitable for superior high-school students in 12 subjects: American history, biology, chemistry, English composition, European history, French, German, Latin, literature, mathematics, physics, and Spanish.[3]

Teachers at all grade levels should derive considerable benefit from the "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives," which contains illustrative educational objectives and test items for

[1] Based on speech, Spring Conference of Wisconsin Association of Secondary Principals, Madison, March 21, 1958.

[2] The author is indebted to D. A. Worcester for several helpful comments.

[3] This 136-page book, copyrighted in 1957, may be obtained from the program director, Advanced Placement Program, College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th St., New York 27, N. Y.

six levels of complexity: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.[4]

Science teachers should find the Dressel-Nelson folio of 13,000 specimen test items for senior high-school and college science courses suggestive of levels and content.[5] These questions are classified according to the six major categories and the subcategories of the above "Taxonomy."

Teachers from Grade 3 onward may want to inspect the new Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (abbreviated STEP and pronounced "step"), which are separate tests of listening, mathematics, reading, science, social studies, and writing that have higher level items than the usual achievement battery.[6]

Besides the things a teacher can do in his own classes, there are many administrative arrangements that will facilitate the education of gifted youngsters. For example, the ablest students might be allowed to elect an extra subject every year. They might be encouraged to choose the academically most demanding subjects in the school or by correspondence. Some might even get permission to enroll as special students in local colleges and extension centers to take regular college courses during the year or in the summer. A really bright student should profit more from a beginning college course in chemistry than from a well-taught high-school course, for example, and by getting college credit he could avoid the considerable overlap that probably would result if he took the course both in high school and in college.[7]

Let me close with two warnings. The finest way to defeat plans to meet some of the special needs of intellectually gifted students is to argue that anything good for them must be valuable for typical students, too. Some youth are a lot brighter than others in their own grade. They think faster and at higher levels of abstraction, complexity, and difficulty. To a great extent, their intellectual needs are more like those of pupils several grades further along than they resemble the mental processes of their own classmates. This is one of the most solidly established facts in psychology. Stepping up requirements for *all* the pupils in a given class is *not* enrichment in the sense that we have been considering that word here.

Little "enrichment" for the gifted actually goes on in most regular classes. It does take the time of the teacher for a small number of students, and other members of the group may not benefit much. Few, if any, schools can afford to rely solely or even mainly upon this deceptively alluring procedure. Many other approaches, including several types of acceleration, also must be employed in order to provide effectively for the diverse mental and emotional needs of intellectually gifted students.

[4] B. S. Bloom, ed., "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals—Handbook I: Cognitive Domain" (New York: Longmans, Green, 1956).

[5] P. L. Dressel and C. H. Nelson, *Test Item Folio* (Princeton, N. J.: Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, 1956).

[6] Published by the Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J.

[7] Interested readers may secure from the author an annotated bibliography that supplements this brief listing.

# Why Gifted Junior High-School Students Read

By DELWYN G. SCHUBERT
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GIFTED PUPILS become interested in reading at an early age, read a considerable amount of material, and show intensified reading interest up to and beyond the age of 17. What is responsible for this intense interest in reading among the gifted? With the help of college students who were enrolled in the author's reading courses during the spring and fall semesters of 1957, the writer was able to accumulate 104 responses from gifted junior high-school students[1]. The query to which they responded was "Why do you like to read?"

Although the reasons given by these students varied tremendously, it was possible to categorize most of the responses in order of their frequency as follows:

**Knowledge and Information.** Gifted junior high-school students realize that the printed page provides a bridge to the vast world of information and knowledge of the human race. They see reading as a means of building their understanding about other people and other lands. To them reading is a vehicle for extending and stimulating their interests and hobbies.

[1] I. Q's varied from 130 to 168.

They appreciate, too, its value as an aid to academic achievement.

An eighth-grade pupil said: "I like to read because that way I find out more about the world. I learn about different people, different places, and many new things and ideas." Others stated: "I like to read because it provides me with information for my hobbies like stamp collecting, shell and rock collecting." "I like to read because I learn from my reading and it helps me in school. When somebody asks me a question on a book, I am not embarrassed."

**Enjoyment.** Many gifted pupils appear to derive emotionally satisfying experiences from books. Words such as "excitement," "fascination," "enjoyment," "satisfaction," etc., frequently are interspersed in their descriptions of what they get from reading.

One pupil said: "I like to read because books give me great pleasure and contentment. Good books satisfy me." Other responses of similar vein were: "When I get a good sports book I get so interested and excited that I don't want to play, eat, or watch TV." "When reading exciting books it's real fascinating because it is like being there with the characters, talking to them, helping them get out of trouble, and playing different sports with them."

**Occupy Time.** When time weighs heavily, gifted pupils read. When asked why she read, one seventh-grade girl humorously replied, "My mother says I'm too young for boys, too old for dolls, so—so I read books." Others said: "I like to read because good books help pass the time away." "When it is a cold or rainy day or there is nothing to do, it's fun to read."

**Escape.** The fact that reading has therapeutic value scarcely can be overestimated. When problems and anxieties build up, they can be alleviated (at least temporarily) by losing oneself in a good book. Gifted pupils, on occasions, avail themselves of this. One said he liked to read because "it is relaxing, and when I am in a bad mood a good book always helps me to forget my troubles." A socially inept pupil said: "I don't have many friends and it bothers me a lot. When I'm reading I can get lost and not be lonely." Another felt that "books allow you to forget all of your troubles for the moment and just relax and enjoy yourself."

**Vocabulary Development.** Studies have shown that the size of a student's vocabulary is a valuable index of his general intelligence. Words are tools for thought and the individual with a meager vocabulary is communicatively and intellectually bankrupt. Gifted children seem aware of this. They put a premium on vocabulary development. This is why, undoubtedly, a number of pupils in this study made specific reference to vocabulary development as motivational to their reading. Sample remarks are: "I like to read because it broadens my knowledge of words and their meanings. I feel this is very educational." "My father says I should have a big vocabulary, and so do I. I like to read because I learn a lot of new words that way." "You can add a lot of words to your vocabulary when you read and that makes you better able to carry on a conversation."

About a dozen replies could not be categorized. For example, an exceptionally bright eighth-grade boy attributed his love of reading to his family's interest in the activity. "It's only natural that I like to read. Our whole family likes to read and we have to spend some time each day with a good book." A seventh-grade boy felt that his interest in reading stemmed from his proficiency in it. "I learned to like reading because it was always easy for me and I'm real good at it."

The foregoing reactions show that gifted junior high-school pupils do enjoy reading and that they are well indoctrinated with one of life's most inexhaustible pleasures. Since reading constitutes about 85% of the ability to study,[2] it is gratifying to learn that gifted students, one of our nation's most valuable resources, find the process enjoyable.

The students in this sample appear to like reading primarily to the degree that it satisfies their needs for acquiring information and providing enjoyment and also, but to a lesser degree, when it meets their desires to be preoccupied, to forget their cares, and to develop their vocabulary. All of these are worthy motives. None is to be deprecated, unless, as in the case of escapism, it is carried to an extreme.

[2] F. Adams, L. Gray, and D. Reese, "Teaching Children to Read" (New York: Ronald Press, 1949), p. 269.


Significant Reading

**An excerpt from the forthcoming book,**

**"THE STATUS SEEKERS"**

*By VANCE PACKARD, author of "The Hidden Persuaders"*

**IN THE APRIL 25TH ISSUE**

**RELIGION AND EDUCATION**

**A SPECIAL SECTION**

**IN THE MAY 9TH ISSUE**

***SCHOOL AND SOCIETY***

# An Attempt to Motivate Potentially Superior Students

By WILLIAM D. MARTINSON and LOUIS C. STAMATAKOS
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WITHIN THE PAST FEW YEARS, education for the superior student has received an increasing amount of attention in the programs of colleges and universities. In part, this emphasis stems from the needs of society for leadership and creative abilities rising from current demands in the areas of science and technology.

Past research has disclosed that gifted or superior students, in later life, tend to assume positions of great responsibility and leadership and make significant contributions to society. However, in studying the performance of superior students, numerous investigators have found that many of these students do not achieve the high scholarship and leadership expected of them. Furthermore, they found that these students often need personal assistance with problems in the areas of self-appraisal, study habits, vocational and academic adjustment, and personal recognition and attention.

As early as 1935, Wrenn[1] urged college and university personnel to be concerned about the great number of superior students who were below their potential level of achievement. Wrenn suggested that the university should indicate to these students at the very outset of their college careers that they are expected to maintain higher standards than represented by the university average. In addition, he suggested that the university should provide subject-matter stimulation for them at the outset of their freshman year. More recently, Waggoner[2] recommended that the gifted students at the large state universities be identified and given special consideration, including independent study, honors programs, and recognition.

It appears to be the task of American institutions of higher learning to determine how maximum or even adequate achievement can be obtained from these superior students and how this performance or development of maximum potential can be passed on to benefit the individual and his society.

What can educators do to assist and stimulate superior students in their academic and extracurricular leadership endeavors? To what types of attention, if any, will superior students respond? Will their responses result in greater academic achievement and extracurricular participation?

The aim of this research was to study the effects of two types of recognition and attention given to four groups of potentially superior freshman students when compared with equated control groups. Examination was made of achievement in the areas of academic performance and extracurricular participation in an attempt to ascertain whether potentially superior students who received recognition, correspondence, and individual study materials from the administration of the university would exceed significantly in academic achievement and extracurricular participation those students who received very little recognition, and whether potentially superior freshman students who received very little recognition would exceed significantly the academic achievement and extracurricular participation of those students who received no official recognition.

Other investigators have found that superior students needed to be identified and encouraged to maintain high scholastic standards; had problems in the area of study habits and academic stimulation; and needed assistance in the areas of leadership, social development, and personal relations.

In view of these findings, the letters, reprints, and materials arranged and utilized in this study for the Correspondence groups were selected because of their appropriateness to student problems, needs, interests, and general orientation and educational value.

The following catagories were established and appropriate articles, pamphlets, and reprints were acquired to fulfill the requirements of these catagories: "General Orientation to College," "Career Planning and Philosophy," "Extracurricular Participation and Leadership," and "Academic Stimulation and General Philosophy."

Six groups of freshman male and female students residing in the Indiana University Residence Halls, and scoring at or above the 85th percentile on the ACE total score, were selected to participate in this study. A total of 186 students fitting these criteria were randomly as-

[1] C. G. Wrenn, *Journal of Higher Education* 6:357-363, Oct., 1935.

[2] G. R. Waggoner, *Journal of Higher Education* 28: 414-442, Nov., 1957.

signed, according to sex, into six groups of 31 in each. Of these six groups, one male and one female group was entitled Correspondence, one male and one female group was entitled Control, and one male and one female group was entitled Recognition, with respect to the nature and extent of differential treatment each was to receive during the first semester, 1957-58.

At the beginning of, and periodically throughout, the first semester, members of the male and female Correspondence groups received personal letters of welcome to the university from the dean of students and letters of invitation to utilize the personnel services of the university and to participate in a special directed reading program sponsored by the Office of the Dean of Students; they also received a series of 23 selected reprints of speeches and published articles which covered the general areas of orientation to college, career planning, leadership, extracurricular participation, study habits, examination preparation, the use of the library facilities, general philosophy, science, literature, education, economics, and marriage and careers.

During this time, students in the Recognition groups received three letters from the Office of the Dean of Students, the first of which welcomed them to the university; the second, recognizing their superior potential and asking for their co-operation in occasionally evaluating their progress; and the third, recognizing their academic progress at mid-semester. The two Control groups were established for purposes of control and received no attention.

At the end of the first semester, the program for Correspondence groups was terminated and evaluation forms were sent to these students for their criticisms, comments, and recommendations as to the reprints, materials, and attention they had received. Evaluation forms were completed and returned by 30 of the 31 female students and 26 of the 31 male students.

Residence halls counselors had been asked to keep monthly records of all extracurricular activities of students in this study for the entire year. At the termination of the study, all completed activities' check sheets were returned to the investigators. Grades for the six groups for both semesters were procured from the Office of the Registrar.

*Findings:* Upon collection of the data, an analysis was made of the common characteristics of the six groups. The analysis revealed the following: no significant differences at the five per cent level of confidence, between group mean ACE scores; the six groups were very similar in respect to ages, number of scholarships held, and amount of money in scholarships; and all but three students had graduated in the upper half of their high-school graduating class, with the majority being in the upper 10%.

In determining the influence of the differential treatment given to the six groups, a "t" test of significance was applied to the mean grade-point averages of the groups and to the mean number and quality points of activities in which each group had participated. It was found that the women in all three groups did better academically, but not significantly, than the three groups of men; the three women's groups participated significantly more in activities than their male counterpart groups, in the area of quality of activities (Activity Points), the Women, Correspondence group, exceeded significantly the Men, Correspondence group, and the Women, Recognition group, exceeded the Men, Recognition group; and although the Women, Control group, exceeded the Men, Control group, this difference was not significant.

In analyzing the difference between female groups with regard to the differential treatment each received, we found no significant differences between these three groups in the area of academic achievement. The only significant difference obtained was found to exist between the Correspondence and Control groups in the mean number of activities in which they participated, with the Correspondence group showing the greater participation.

Similar investigation to the above but referring to the male groups disclosed that there were no significant differences between these groups in either academic achievement, activities, or quality of activities.

Student evaluations of the Correspondence program revealed that the materials and content were appropriate and of value to the majority of the students; articles pertaining to college adjustment and freshman problems were more favorably received than materials dealing with educational or philosophical issues; the majority of the students expressed a need for counseling assistance and personalized attention from the faculty and staff; and the students, in general, recommended that the program be continued.

*Conclusions:* Contrary to popular expectation, the results of this experimental program failed to reveal significant differences in academic achievement as a result of the differential treatment utilized in the study. However, in support of commonly accepted beliefs, this study revealed a performance and participation superiority in favor of women students. Although the

differences in the academic area achievement were not significant, at the five per cent level, all of the differences favored the female groups. All differences between male and female means in the area of activities and activity points, with the exception of the Control groups in activity points, showed a significant difference in favor of the women's groups.

Although limited in scope and to a single institution, the findings raise considerable question concerning the value of some of the commonly accepted methods of stimulating and challenging superior students in academic and leadership areas. The results of this study, as well as the general paucity of experimental evidence, would suggest a need for specific study of current methods used in providing for potentially superior students.

# Test Biases of Prospective Teachers for Identifying Gifted Children

By JULIAN C. STANLEY[1]
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SOME PERSONS champion tests of intelligence, reading, subject-matter achievement, and special aptitude as the prime way to identify "gifted" youngsters. Others prefer more subjective indices, such as grades earned in school and observations of precociousness. These differences in opinion often make the setting up of identification procedures difficult, since certain teachers will insist upon ability tests, while many of their colleagues will deem them unnecessary or even undesirable.

The writer hypothesizes that *one* factor contributing to a person's attitude toward the use of ability measures, especially verbal intelligence tests, is his own experience with these instruments. Specifically, a person who scores quite low among his peers, and knows it, should tend to rationalize his inferior position by denying the value of the test. Conversely, an individual who scores quite high among his peers, and knows it, should tend to enhance his own ego by believing that the test measures something really important. Persons neither very high nor very low should be less ego-involved. The study reported here represents a preliminary exploratory attempt to test this hypothesis.

The 34 students, chiefly college juniors, in a required child and adolescent development education course, took Terman's Concept Mastery Test[2] near the beginning of the semester. They were told their individual scores and rank in class on this high-level verbal "intelligence" test at the beginning of a five-week unit on mental development, which included considerable material dealing with the gifted child. Toward the end of this unit, eight students were chosen by the instructor to form a panel and present their views about "how to identify intellectually gifted children at the kindergarten-elementary school level."

Four of the students were male; four were female. Two of the men had been the highest male scorers on the Concept Mastery Test; the other two, the lowest. Likewise, two of the women had been the highest female scorers; the other two, the lowest. None of the students were told about the organization of the panel with respect to CMT scores, nor did any ever seem to surmise this.

Each panel member presented a prepared statement not more than five minutes long in an order designated by the instructor: highest woman, highest man, lowest woman, lowest man, next-to-lowest woman, next-to-lowest man, next-to-highest woman, next-to-highest man. Unknown to panel members, the 26 other students had mimeographed sheets on which they were instructed to ". . . put the letter 'T' after the name of each speaker who, in your judgment, emphasizes tests and the letter 'N' after the name of each speaker who emphasizes non-test methods. . . ." After all eight panel members had spoken, each was asked by the instructor, "Do you believe that intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests are more useful than non-ability tests (of interests, personality, and attitudes) and other procedures for identifying gifted children at the kindergarten-elementary school level? Answer 'Yes' or 'No.' " Finally, each panel member was asked to tell "the single best

[1] The writer is indebted to Herbert J. Klausmeier for helpful suggestions concerning an earlier draft of this paper. Dr. Stanley is a Fulbright Act Research Scholar in educational psychology, Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium, during 1958-59.

[2] Published by the Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45 Street, New York 17, N. Y.

specific method for initially screening to locate intellectually gifted children at the kindergarten-elementary school level." The 26 non-panel class members were also asked to respond in writing with respect to themselves to questions 2 and 3 above.

Data for the eight panel members are shown in Table 1.

**TABLE 1**
**Preference for Test (T) Versus Non-test (N) Methods for Identifying Gifted Children**

| | Raw Total Score on CMT | Sex | Class Rating for "T" | Self Rating | Best Single Technique | Composite |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H | 108 | F | T (100%) | N | T | T |
| i | 102 | F | N ( 42%) | T | T | T |
| g | 91 | M | T (100%) | T | T | T |
| h | 90 | M | N ( 46%) | N | N | N |
| L | 37 | F | N ( 46%) | N | T | N |
| o | 32 | F | N ( 23%) | N | N | N |
| w | 29 | M | T ( 81%)** | N | N | N |
| | 23 | M | N ( 0%) | N | N | N |

* Difficult for class members to rate because she talked almost exclusively about facilitating the educational development of the gifted rather than about identifying them.

** Forgot to prepare a statement and, therefore, just read a short article about gifted children that he happened to have on hand.

All of the 26 raters believed that the woman and the man who had the highest scores for their sexes on the Concept Mastery Test favored tests for identifying the gifted as reflected by their statements; all 26 agreed that the person who had scored lowest favored non-test procedures. Class ratings for the other five were less clear-cut.

By taking a person's over-all choice as being the majority (two out of three) of his three ratings (see the "Composite" column of Table 1), we find the directional hypothesis that low scorers on the Concept Mastery Test prefer non-test procedures confirmed for all four panel members and that high scorers prefer test procedures confirmed for the highest three out of four. Seven "successes" or more in eight trials would occur by chance, according to the binomial expansion, only nine times in 256, so the null hypothesis—no difference between high and low scorers—is rejected at the 3½% level of significance.

Interestingly, the only failure to conform with the directional hypothesis was the consistent non-test bias of the man who scored lowest of the four high persons on the Concept Mastery Test and only sixth within the entire class. He was a college graduate with a low grade-point average who entered the class late and took the test alone. He had not participated in the discussion of the CMT scores, merely having been told his score and rank. For the class as a whole, the four highest and the four lowest scorers on the Concept Mastery Test, without regard to sex, conformed perfectly to the hypothesis. (This is not shown in Table 1.)

When the 26 non-panel members were dichotomized at the median according to score on the Concept Mastery Test, 11 of the 13 persons in the "high" group were found to favor a test approach, while five of the 13 in the lower group favored non-test procedures. Sixteen "successes" out of 26 is a minor departure from the 13 expected by chance, so evidently the test vs. non-test bias holds only for persons who rank quite high or low.[3] This finding is also in accord with the initial hypothesis.

Some readers will note that the results of this study might be explained as a strong tendency for high scorers on the Concept Mastery Test to sense the instructor's preference for tests and to espouse this approach in order to please him, with corresponding failure on the part of the low scorers to detect this preference. Because the subjects were college students, mainly juniors, all bright enough to capitalize upon such a bias, if desired, this seems unlikely. Also, the panel members and other students were not being "graded" on their performances. If any students were trying to impress the instructor by enunciating his point of view, they should have been the lowest scorers on the Concept Mastery Test, who on the average needed to improve their grades. The highest scorers, having much better grades on subject-matter tests, should have been under less pressure to create a favorable impression.

We need to know more about the reactions of an individual to ranking high or low within a group of his peers on an "intelligence" test. For secure persons, being near the bottom may not be threatening, while for insecure ones even scoring second from the top may be a great disappointment. Students who rank high on tests of verbal ability but earn mediocre grades may refute such scores because for them they lack predictive value; conversely, some may prize the high rank as better evidence of their "worth" than are grades. Considerations such as these

[3] But the 11 out of 13 successful predictions in the high group are significant at the 1.1% level, suggesting that above-average scorers may prefer tests for identifying gifted children, while below-average scorers may be indifferent unless they rank quite low within the group.

should lead to specific, testable hypotheses for further investigations.

To sum up, students who knew that they ranked quite high within a child development course on Terman's Concept Mastery Test tended to prefer ability tests for identifying gifted children, while those who knew that they ranked quite low preferred non-test procedures.

EVENTS

# A Secondary Curriculum for the Academically Talented

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION did well to convoke in Feb., 1958, a conference on "The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Student in the American Secondary School," with 200 educational and subject-matter specialists deliberating under the wise direction of James B. Conant. It also used the Carnegie Corporation funds to further advantage when it published in the fall a volume summarizing what was said at the conference.

The tangible results consisted of many useful ideas on how to tell who is talented and a series of recommendations on enriched content in five areas of subject matter. The members of the conference strongly urged the following requirements for the gifted: four years of English, three years of mathematics, a four-year sequence in one modern foreign language, three years of science, and three years of social studies. Except for English, these suggestions were labeled as minimal.

This new curriculum for the academically talented does not seem basically different from the conventional academic curriculum of two to three decades ago. By no stretch of the imagination can it be said to strike at the roots of the problem. It might have at least been expected, as a consequence of the recent tumult about belated justice for the gifted student, that the conference would come up with something more exciting than what *good, not exceptional,* high-school boys and girls should be able to master as a matter of course. Instead of proposing a fourth year of science, mathematics, and social studies, and a second foreign language to be studied for at least three years, the conference put forth what must be considered a farcical formula for those brilliant students whose abilities should be extended by real challenges.

The conference report appears wishy-washy and namby-pamby. It is subdued and vague with regard to curriculum content where it should be sonorous and vigorous. Fortunately, the mathematics and the foreign-language sections sin less than the other three subjects with respect to specificity.

It is puzzling why the conference did not include any of the following areas of knowledge to enrich the educational experiences of the academically endowed: Anglo-Saxon, comparative literature, anthropology, astronomy, geology, psychology, philosophy, sociology, history of mathematics, history of science, Greek, and other subjects which are not commonly taught in American high schools. Nowhere does the report discuss the possibility of getting gifted pupils to read systematically, and with ease and enjoyment, foreign writings in connection with their work in other fields. What of the reading of literary works in the original languages?

The combined talents of the 200 thinkers merely created a "ridiculus mus." This is saddening. We still are in dire need of a solid, substantial curriculum for the academically talented pupils.

WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN

## GIFTED STUDENTS TO TRACK SATELLITES

TWENTY-FIVE outstanding high-school students from four Southern California counties will receive special instruction in science and mathematics and conduct their own satellite-tracking project in a seven-week pilot program at The Thacher School in Ojai, Calif., in the summer of 1959. Under this "gifted student" program, the first of its kind in the West, students will be selected from high-school boys completing their junior year in Los Angeles, Orange, Ventura, and Santa Barbara Counties. Selection will be based on principals' recommendation, qualifying examinations, and interviews.

Morning sessions of the summer program will contain instruction in physics and mathematics under a curriculum designed by California Institute of Technology. Topics will include mechanics, wave motion in light and sound, electromagnetic phenomena, trigonometry, analytic geometry, and elementary calculus. Afternoon sessions will concern satellite-tracking studies as a central theme, outlined by Hughes Aircraft Co., with topics including trajectory calculations, optical observations, and radio observations of man-launched satellites.

The satellite-tracking program was devised to bring together a wide variety of topics in physics, astronomy, and mathematics. Students will examine families of orbits, calculate future positions of planets and satellites, lay out an observation station, organize

and train a team of observers, make visual observations and take photographs of planets and satellites, and install and operate two short-wave receivers for receiving both satellite and National Bureau of Standards time signals.

The program is financed by a $15,000 grant from the Helms Foundation and $5,000 from the Ralph B. Lloyd Foundation to The Thacher School. California Institute of Technology will provide advice on the academic program, assist in choosing a faculty, loan special laboratory equipment, and arrange a visit for students to its Pasadena campus to observe research work. The Hughes Aircraft Co. will provide technical know-how, plan the satellite-tracking technical project, give faculty guidance, provide a major share of laboratory equipment, conduct a two-day industrial laboratory tour for students to the Los Angeles area, and assist in placement of graduates in industry during the following summer.

Members of the executive committee for the summer program are Richard Sutton, California Institute of Technology, chairman; Lester C. Van Atta, head of technical information and education, Hughes Aircraft Co.; and Newton K. Chase, headmaster, The Thacher School. The academic director of the program will be Prof. Foster Strong, California Institute of Technology; the administrative director, Macdonald Halsey, The Thacher School.

The summer session will run June 23-Aug. 11, 1959, at the independent, nonprofit boys' boarding school in the Ojai Valley north of Ventura, Calif. There will be no tuition fee, but a charge of $200 will be made for room and board. Scholarship assistance is available to deserving students otherwise unable to attend.

## NEW PLAN FOR SUPERIOR STUDENTS

A PROGRAM for superior students, based on the principle of special curricular arrangements to match capacity to learn more quickly and to handle studies of greater difficulty and maturity, has been authorized, effective Sept. 1, 1959, at the University of Illinois. Presented by the University Senate, the program was approved by action of the board of trustees, including appointment of Prof. R. E. Johnson, head of the department of physiology, as director of university honors programs to supervise plans and functions.

The participants will be a group of superior students to consist of from three to five per cent of the entering freshman class who will be chosen on basis of available records and tests, recommendations of high-school principals and teachers, and personal interviews. Members of this group will be known as Edmund J. James Scholars and will be taught in special courses and sections designed to exercise to the full their academic capabilities. Inclusion of sophomores, juniors, and seniors in the group of James Scholars will be accomplished in the second, third, and fourth years after the program is established.

A Faculty Honors Council will be appointed by Pres. David D. Henry to work with the director of the university honors program, and jointly they will formulate and propose measures for improving the university's educational program for superior students, for stimulating such students to their best efforts, and for encouraging them by providing physical facilities conducive to study.

## UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH SCHOLARS

IN A NEW experimental scholarship program, Ohio State University will give superior students a new opportunity to work, as undergraduates, with some of the university's leading research scholars. For the 1959-60 academic year, six top-ranking juniors or seniors will be designated "undergraduate research scholars" and will receive $900 scholarships. They will be assigned to work during the year with top faculty scholars in their fields of interest on research projects which will aid both the student and the faculty members. The program has a three-fold purpose: to recognize superior academic achievement, to encourage outstanding students to go into college teaching, and to "rescue" such students from jobs not related to their studies. The plans were announced jointly by the Honors Committee of the College of Arts and Sciences and the University Scholarship Committee.

Initially, the undergraduate research scholars will be chosen from the 81 now enrolled in the Honors Program of the Arts College. If the program is extended, however, future selection of students probably would be made on a university-wide basis.

## REWARDING EXCELLENCE OF COLLEGE TEACHING

REFLECTING its vigorous concern for undergraduate education, the University of Chicago has given special recognition for 30 years to excellence in undergraduate teaching, its awards for this purpose probably being the first of their kind. Originally in the form of special salary increases, the awards since 1938 have been annual prizes of $1,000 each, named the Lewellyn John and Harriet Manchester Quantrell Awards. The donor who established these prizes is Ernest E. Quantrell, alumnus and trustee, who has had a special interest in the college of the University of Chicago and the quality of its teaching.

Mr. Quantrell established a fund in 1929 to increase the salaries of outstanding teachers of undergraduates. Begun in 1930, the increases, particularly substantial for the depression period, were given to five faculty members through the academic years, 1937-38. In addition, the university in 1932 devoted the income from a fund from another donor to increase salaries of 10 other distinguished teachers. In 1937, Mr. Quantrell made a substantial addition to his original gift and suggested the award be changed to three annual prizes of $1,000 each, to be known as The Award for Undergraduate Teaching and to be announced publicly at the June Convocation. In his letter of gift, Mr. Quantrell said, "The purpose of the Award is to interest teachers in training not only

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scholars and research workers, but also young men and women for intelligent and public spirited participation in leadership in business, civic and professional life. I hope the Award will result in constantly improving our faculty who teach undergraduates."

The first of these awards was made in 1938 to Prof. William T. Hutchinson, professor of history; Joseph J. Schwab, instructor in biological sciences; and Reginald J. Stephenson, instructor in physics. Hutchinson now holds the Preston and Sterling Morton Professorship of History and Schwab is professor of education and a William Rainey Harper Professor of the Natural Sciences. (The Harper Professorships, currently four in number, established in 1950 by an initiating grant from the Carnegie Corporation, also are in recognition of distinction in undergraduate teaching.) Prof. Stephenson remained with the university until he took another appointment in 1945. Of the 70 recipients of the awards since 1938, 49 are members of the present university faculty.

The value of the awards as a demonstration of the university's recognition of teaching led Mr. Quantrell in 1952 to add again to the fund so that the number of prizes could be increased to four each year. On the initiative of the university, Mr. Quantrell at that time agreed to the present title of the awards, naming them in honor of his father and mother.

In determining the winners of the awards, the university has no formal pattern of procedure. A committee consisting of the dean of the college, the dean of students and the vice-president and dean of faculties—all of whom are in continuing touch with faculty activities and in a position to have access to relevant information—makes the recommendations which the chancellor transmits to the board of trustees, who confirm the awards. This method of selection has proved satisfactory, and both students and faculty have accepted the awards year by year as recognition which the winners merited.

W. V. Morgenstern
Secretary of the University

*University of Chicago*

## COLLEGE-LEVEL COURSES IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Kent State University has endorsed a program for establishment of college-level courses in high schools for able students and will make faculty members available to high schools wishing to set up the advanced program. The program aims to help the superior student to avoid "marking time" in taking courses below his level of ability. In many instances, students taking the advanced courses will be granted college credit for the work done.

Kent's action is being taken in concert with the five other state universities, including Bowling Green State University, Central State College, Miami University, Ohio University, and Ohio State University. The program is under the College Entrance Examination Board of New York City. Results of board examinations are used by universities as guides in placing students in advanced courses and in granting credits.

Some 400 high schools, including seven in Ohio, and 400 colleges and universities already are participating in the advanced placement program. In addition to providing more challenging academic work for able students, the program may assist high schools in developing higher standards of performance and may help schools and colleges to identify superior students.

The program encourages high schools to establish college-level courses in up to 11 subject areas: literature and English composition, American history, European history, French, German, Latin, Spanish, mathematics, biology, chemistry, and physics.

## NEW RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS

The Rhodes Trustees have decided to establish Rhodes Scholarships for five Commonwealth countries or regions which recently have become, or are about to become, self-governing—Ceylon, Ghana, the Malayan Region (which will include, besides Malaya, Singapore, Brunei, North Borneo, and Sarawak), Nigeria, and the Caribbean Federation (which will include, besides the Caribbean Federation, British Guiana, British Honduras, and the Bahamas, but will exclude Jamaica, since Jamaica aleady enjoys a Rhodes Scholarship of its own, created by the founder's will).

Because of the exceptional pressure on Oxford University expected over the next few years, it will not be practicable to bring all the new scholarships into existence at the same time. The trustees, accordingly, propose to establish the scholarship for Ceylon first, the first Ceylonese scholar coming into residence at Oxford in Oct., 1959; then, in successive years, the scholarship for Ghana and that for Malaya; and, thereafter, those for Nigeria and the Caribbean. One scholar from each of the new constituencies will be in residence at any given time, and elections consequently will be held in every third year.

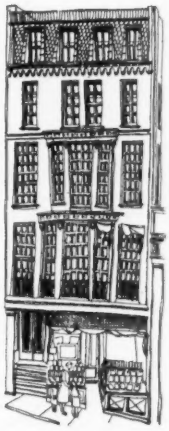
The Rhodes Trustees are confident that the new scholars will reach the high standards set by Rhodes Scholars in the past and, like them, will play a valuable and distinguished part in the life of their own countries.

## COLLEGE TEACHER SHORTAGE

The United States will need at least 425,000 new college teachers between now and 1970, participants in New York University's 13th annual Higher Education Conference were told Dec. 6, 1958, by Ray C. Maul, assistant director, Research Division, National Education Association. The new teachers "must be trained, inducted, and held in classroom service" to provide instruction for an expected college enrollment of 6,000,000 students in 1970.

According to Dr. Maul, the nation's colleges and universities must have in the next 12 years some 35,000 new teachers in the field of English, 32,000 in education, 30,000 in engineering, 25,000 in the biological sciences, 22,000 in business and commerce,

## METHODS



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22,000 in the foreign languages, 17,000 in mathematics, 16,000 in chemistry, 12,000 in physics, 15,000 in history, 10,000 in economics, and 7,000 in political science—the fields of "greatest shortage."

Dr. Maul stated:

> Institutions of higher education are running into a storm that threatens to assume hurricane proportions. Right now the nation should be reinvesting more of its ablest manpower in the educational system. Instead, other occupations are permitted to attract a majority of those best-prepared scholars whose help is most needed, particularly in the college and university classrooms.
>
> The number of top-level graduates, those who earn the doctor's degree in the next ten years, will be no more than half the number of new college teachers needed next year. At present about two of every five who earn the doctor's degree are already fully employed, and thus their graduation does not add to the reservoir of availability. Of those who enter new occupations on graduation, two of every five take jobs in noneducational fields, chiefly industry and government. It seems inevitable, therefore, that the per cent of college teachers to have this most comprehensive training will continue to shrink.

Dr. Maul observed that, while the undergraduate colleges produce the new supply of elementary and high-school teachers, "only the graduate schools can produce college teachers equal to the service we expect of them. Although hard pressed to conduct the research demanded for our growing technology, they must also concentrate upon the production of college teachers. This is a particular challenge in the scientific fields, where the attractions of other occupations are the greatest." He added that "only a few of the graduate schools have turned seriously to this task."

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**The following are 1958 editions.**

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WARD, LEO R. *New Life in Catholic Schools.* Pp. 198. B. Herder Book Co., St. Louis 2, Mo. $3.95.

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WICKE, MYRON F. *On Teaching in a Christian College.* Board of Education, The Methodist Church, Nashville 2, Tenn. 75 cents (paper).

WILENHAUSER, ALFRED (editor). *New Testament Introduction.* Pp. 579. Herder & Herder, 7 W. 46 St., New York 36. $7.80.

WILLIAMS, GEORGE. *Some of My Best Friends are Professors.* Pp. 246. Abelard-Schuman, New York 16. $3.95.

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